

Neutrino Mass Seesaw Version 3: Recent Developments

Ernest Ma

Physics and Astronomy Department, University of California, Riverside, California 92521, USA

Abstract. The origin of neutrino mass is usually attributed to a seesaw mechanism, either through a heavy Majorana fermion singlet (version 1) or a heavy scalar triplet (version 2). Recently, the idea of using a heavy Majorana fermion triplet (version 3) has gained some attention. This is a review of the basic idea involved, its U(1) gauge extension, and some recent developments.

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INTRODUCTION

In the minimal standard model (SM) of quarks and leptons, the neutrinos $\nu_{e,\mu,\tau}$ are very different from other fermions because they need only exist as the neutral components of the electroweak doublets $L_\alpha = (\nu_\alpha, l_\alpha)$. As such, they are massless two-component spinors and may become massive only if there is new physics beyond the SM. Assuming only the low-energy particle content of the SM, it was pointed out long ago [1] that small Majorana neutrino masses are given by the unique dimension-five operator

$$\mathcal{L}_5 = \frac{f_{\alpha\beta}}{2\Lambda} (\nu_\alpha \phi^0 - l_\alpha \phi^+) (\nu_\beta \phi^0 - l_\beta \phi^+), \quad (1)$$

where $\Phi = (\phi^+, \phi^0)$ is the one Higgs scalar doublet of the SM. The neutrino mass matrix is thus necessarily seesaw in form, i.e. $f_{\alpha\beta} v^2 / \Lambda$, where v is the vacuum expectation value of ϕ^0 which breaks the electroweak $SU(2) \times U(1)$ gauge symmetry. It was also pointed out some years ago [2] that there are three (and only three) tree-level realizations of this operator (Fig. 1), as well as three generic one-loop realizations. The most

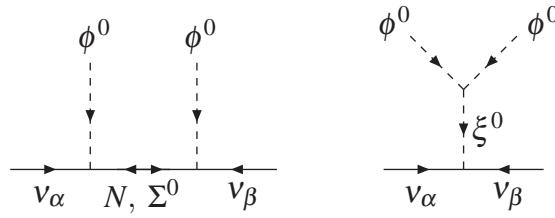


FIGURE 1. Three tree-level realizations of seesaw Majorana neutrino mass.

common thinking regarding the seesaw origin of neutrino mass is to assume a heavy Majorana fermion singlet N (version 1), the next most common is to use a heavy scalar triplet (ξ^{++}, ξ^+, ξ^0) (version 2), whereas the third option, i.e. that of a heavy Majorana

fermion triplet $(\Sigma^+, \Sigma^0, \Sigma^-)$ [3] (version 3), has not received as much attention. However, it may be relevant to a host of other issues in physics beyond the SM and is now being studied extensively. I will review in this talk a number of such topics, including gauge-coupling unification in the SM, new U(1) gauge symmetry, and dark matter.

GAUGE-COUPLING UNIFICATION

It is well-known that gauge-coupling unification occurs for the minimal supersymmetric standard model (MSSM) but not the SM. The difference can be traced to the addition of gauginos and higgsinos, transforming under $SU(3)_C \times SU(2)_L \times U(1)_Y$ as $(8,1,0)$, $(1,3,0)$, $(1,2,\pm 1/2)$, and a second Higgs scalar doublet. In particular, the contribution of the $SU(2)_L$ gaugino triplet is crucial in allowing the $SU(2)_L$ and $U(1)_Y$ gauge couplings to meet at high enough an energy scale to be acceptable for suppressing proton decay. Since Σ is exactly such a fermion triplet, it is not surprising that gauge-coupling unification in the SM may be achieved using it [4, 5, 6, 7] together with some other fields.

To understand how this works, consider the one-loop renormalization-group equations governing the evolution of the three gauge couplings with mass scale:

$$\frac{1}{\alpha_i(M_1)} - \frac{1}{\alpha_i(M_2)} = \frac{b_i}{2\pi} \ln \frac{M_2}{M_1}, \quad (2)$$

where $\alpha_i = g_i^2/4\pi$, and the numbers b_i are determined by the particle content of the model between M_1 and M_2 . Since

$$\alpha_C(M_U) = \alpha_L(M_U) = (5/3)\alpha_Y(M_U) = \alpha_U \quad (3)$$

is required for unification, but not the actual numerical value of α_U , only $b_Y - b_L$ and $b_L - b_C$ are important for this purpose. These numbers are listed below for the SM, MSSM, and some other models. Focus only on those new particles which transform

TABLE 1. Gauge-coupling unification in the MSSM and other models.

Model	$b_Y - b_L$	$b_L - b_C$	new fermions	new scalars
SM	7.27	3.83	none	none
MSSM	5.60	4.00	$(1,3,0)$, $(8,1,0)$, $(1,2,\pm 1/2)$	$(1,2,1/2)$
Ref. [4]	5.27	3.83	$(1,3,0)$	$(1,3,0) \times 2$, $(8,1,0) \times 4$
Ref. [5, 6]	5.60	3.00	$(1,3,0)$, $(8,1,0)$	$(1,3,0)$, $(8,1,0)$
Ref. [7]	5.87	4.33	$(1,3,0)$	$(1,2,1/2)$, $(8,1,0) \times 2$

nontrivially under $SU(2)_L \times U(1)_Y$. Let them be at the electroweak scale, then

$$\ln \frac{M_U}{M_Z} \simeq \frac{\sqrt{2}\pi^2}{(b_Y - b_L)G_F M_W^2} \left(\frac{3}{5 \tan^2 \theta_W} - 1 \right). \quad (4)$$

Hence M_U greater than about 10^{16} GeV implies $b_Y - b_L$ less than about 5.7. In Refs. [5, 6], an intermediate scale of about 10^8 GeV is needed for the color octets.

PHENOMENOLOGY OF $(\Sigma^+, \Sigma^0, \Sigma^-)$

If Σ exists at or below the TeV scale, then it has a rich phenomenology [3, 8, 9, 10] and may be probed at the Large Hadron Collider (LHC). Unless there is a Higgs scalar triplet (s^+, s^0, s^-) [4], the mass splitting between Σ^0 and Σ^\pm is radiative and comes from electroweak gauge interactions. It is positive and for large m_Σ , it approaches [11] $G_F M_W^3 (1 - \cos \theta_W) / \sqrt{2\pi} \simeq 168$ MeV, thus allowing the decay of Σ^\pm to $\Sigma^0 \pi^\pm$ and $\Sigma^0 l^\pm \nu$. Since Σ also has Yukawa couplings to (ν_α, l_α) and (ϕ^+, ϕ^0) , the decays $\Sigma^\pm \rightarrow l^\pm h$, $\Sigma^0 \rightarrow \nu h$ are possible, as well as $\Sigma^\pm \rightarrow l^\pm Z$, νW^\pm and $\Sigma^0 \rightarrow \nu Z$, $l^\pm W^\mp$ through the mixing of Σ^0 with ν , and Σ^\pm with l^\pm , unless they are forbidden by a symmetry, in which case Σ^0 is a dark-matter (DM) candidate [4, 11, 12].

The production of Σ is by pairs from quark fusion through the electroweak gauge bosons with a cross section of the order 1 fb for m_Σ of about 1 TeV, and rising to more than 10^2 fb if m_Σ is 300 GeV. Each decay mode of Σ has a huge SM background to contend with. The best chance of digging out the signal is to look for charged-lepton final states. Copying Ref. [10], the prognosis at the LHC for the 5σ discovery of the particles responsible for the three versions of the seesaw mechanism is shown below. A dash means no such state. A cross means no such signal.

TABLE 2. Discovery potential at the LHC for seesaw 1,2,3.

final state	$m_N = 100$ GeV	$m_\xi = 300$ GeV	$m_\Sigma = 300$ GeV
6 leptons	–	–	×
5 leptons	–	–	28 fb^{-1}
$l^\pm l^\pm l^\pm l^\mp$	–	–	15 fb^{-1}
$l^+ l^+ l^- l^-$	–	19 fb^{-1}	7 fb^{-1}
$l^\pm l^\pm l^\pm$	–	–	30 fb^{-1}
$l^\pm l^\pm l^\mp$	$<180 \text{ fb}^{-1}$	3.6 fb^{-1}	2.5 fb^{-1}
$l^\pm l^\pm$	$<180 \text{ fb}^{-1}$	17.4 fb^{-1}	1.7 fb^{-1}
$l^+ l^-$	×	15 fb^{-1}	80 fb^{-1}
l^\pm	×	×	×

LEPTOGENESIS INVOLVING $(\Sigma^+, \Sigma^0, \Sigma^-)$

Just as there are three seesaw mechanisms, the decays of the corresponding heavy particles N [13], (ξ^{++}, ξ^+, ξ^0) [14], and $(\Sigma^+, \Sigma^0, \Sigma^-)$ [12] are natural for generating a lepton asymmetry of the Universe, which gets converted [15] into the present observed baryon asymmetry through sphalerons. Just as N may decay into leptons and antileptons because it is a Majorana fermion, the same is true for Σ . Assuming three such triplets, successful leptogenesis requires [12] the lightest to be heavier than about 10^{10} GeV, similar to that for the lightest N . However, since Σ has electroweak gauge interactions, the initial conditions for the Boltzmann equations are determined here through thermal equilibrium, which may not be as simple for N .

There is another interesting correlation. The addition of three $(1, 3, 0)$ fermion triplets to the SM instead of just one will not lead to gauge-coupling unification unless all three are also roughly at the 10^{10} GeV scale [12]. Whereas other fields are still needed, such as those transforming under $(8, 1, 0)$, this is another argument for preferring Σ over N .

NEW $U(1)$ GAUGE SYMMETRY

Consider an extension of the SM to include a fermion triplet $(\Sigma^+, \Sigma^0, \Sigma^-)$ per family as well as a new $U(1)_X$ gauge symmetry as listed below. Remarkably [16, 17, 18], $U(1)_X$

TABLE 3. Fermion content of proposed model.

Fermion	$SU(3)_C \times SU(2)_L \times U(1)_Y$	$U(1)_X$
$(u, d)_L$	$(3, 2, 1/6)$	n_1
u_R	$(3, 1, 2/3)$	$n_2 = (7n_1 - 3n_4)/4$
d_R	$(3, 1, -1/3)$	$n_3 = (n_1 + 3n_4)/4$
$(v, e)_L$	$(1, 2, -1/2)$	$n_4 \neq -3n_1$
e_R	$(1, 1, -1)$	$n_5 = (-9n_1 + 5n_4)/4$
$(\Sigma^+, \Sigma^0, \Sigma^-)_R$	$(1, 3, 0)$	$n_6 = (3n_1 + n_4)/4$

is free of all anomalies. For example, one can easily check that

$$6n_1^3 - 3n_2^3 - 3n_3^3 + 2n_4^3 - n_5^3 = 3(3n_1 + n_4)^3/64 = 3n_6^3. \quad (5)$$

Furthermore, it has been shown [17] that if a fermion multiplet $(1, 2p + 1, 0; n_6)$ per family is added to the SM, the only anomaly-free solutions for $U(1)_X$ are $p = 0$ (N) for which the well-known $U(1)_{B-L}$ is obtained, and $p = 1$ (Σ) as given above.

The new gauge boson X may be accessible at the LHC. In that case, its decay into quarks and leptons will determine the parameter $r = n_4/n_1$. In particular, the ratios

$$\frac{\Gamma(X \rightarrow t\bar{t})}{\Gamma(X \rightarrow \mu\bar{\mu})} = \frac{3(65 - 42r + 9r^2)}{81 - 90r + 41r^2}, \quad \frac{\Gamma(X \rightarrow b\bar{b})}{\Gamma(X \rightarrow \mu\bar{\mu})} = \frac{3(17 + 6r + 9r^2)}{81 - 90r + 41r^2}, \quad (6)$$

are especially good discriminators [19], as shown in Fig. 2 [20].

The scalar sector of this $U(1)_X$ model consists of two Higgs doublets $\Phi_1 = (\phi_1^+, \phi_1^0)$ with charge $(9n_1 - n_4)/4$ which couples to charged leptons, and $\Phi_2 = (\phi_2^+, \phi_2^0)$ with charge $(3n_1 - 3n_4)/4$ which couples to *up* and *down* quarks as well as to Σ . To break the $U(1)_X$ gauge symmetry spontaneously, a singlet χ with charge $-2n_6$ is added, which also allows the Σ 's to acquire Majorana masses at the $U(1)_X$ breaking scale. This specific two-Higgs doublet model is different from conventional studies where one doublet couples to *up* quarks and the other to *down* quarks and charged leptons. The resulting detailed differences are verifiable at the LHC.

In general, there is $Z - X$ mixing in their mass matrix, but it must be very small to satisfy present precision electroweak measurements. The condition for zero $Z - X$ mass mixing is $v_1^2/v_2^2 = 3(n_4 - n_1)/(9n_1 - n_4)$, which requires $1 < n_4/n_1 < 9$. Low-energy precision measurements of SM physics also constrain the contributions of this $U(1)_X$. Let $n_1^2 + n_4^2$ be normalized to one, and $\tan\phi = n_4/n_1$, then the 95% confidence-level

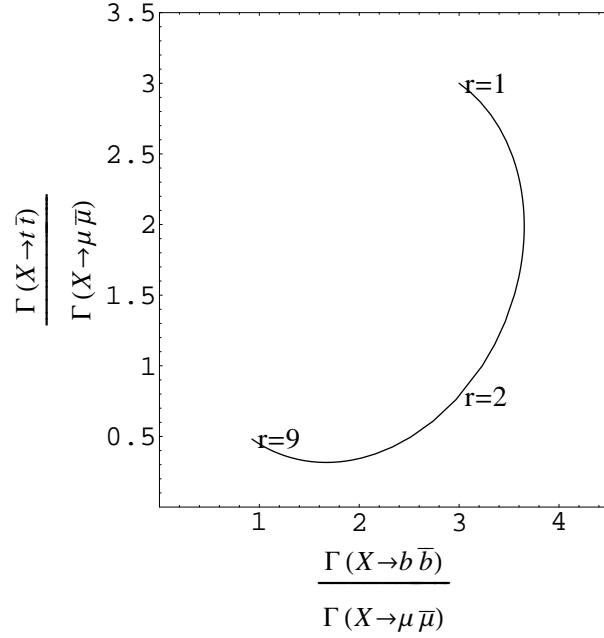


FIGURE 2. Plot of $\Gamma(X \rightarrow t\bar{t})/\Gamma(X \rightarrow \mu\bar{\mu})$ versus $\Gamma(X \rightarrow b\bar{b})/\Gamma(X \rightarrow \mu\bar{\mu})$.

lower bound on M_X/g_X is shown in Fig. 3 [20], assuming zero $Z - X$ mixing so that there is no constraint coming from measurements at the Z resonance. Thus only the range $1 < r < 9$, i.e. $\pi/4 < \phi < 1.46$ is actually allowed.

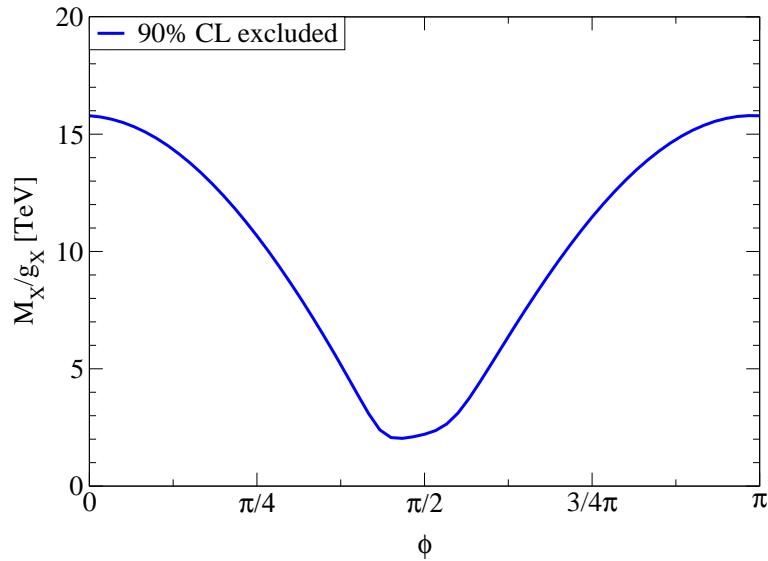


FIGURE 3. Lower bound on M_X/g_X versus ϕ .

SCOTOGENIC RADIATIVE NEUTRINO MASS

There are also three generic one-loop radiative mechanisms [2] for neutrino mass. An intriguing possibility is that the particles in the loop are distinguished from those of the SM by a Z_2 discrete symmetry. The simplest realization [21] is to add a second scalar doublet (η^+, η^0) [22] as well as three fermion singlets N , and let them be odd under Z_2 with all SM particles even. Clearly, Σ may be chosen [7] instead of N and a radiative seesaw neutrino mass is generated as shown in Fig. 4. The allowed quartic scalar term

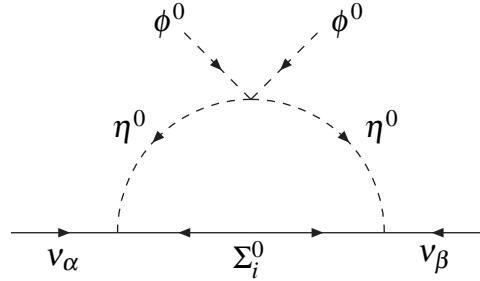


FIGURE 4. One-loop generation of seesaw neutrino mass.

$(\lambda_5/2)(\Phi^\dagger \eta)^2 + H.c.$ is necessary for this mechanism to work. It also splits the complex scalar field η^0 into two mass eigenstates: $\text{Re}(\eta^0)$ and $\text{Im}(\eta^0)$, resulting in

$$(\mathcal{M}_v)_{\alpha\beta} = \sum_i \frac{h_{\alpha i} h_{\beta i} M_i}{16\pi^2} \left[\frac{m_R^2}{m_R^2 - M_i^2} \ln \frac{m_R^2}{M_i^2} - \frac{m_I^2}{m_I^2 - M_i^2} \ln \frac{m_I^2}{M_i^2} \right], \quad (7)$$

where $m_R^2 - m_I^2 = 2\lambda_5 v^2$ and M_i are the Σ masses. The lighter one of $\text{Re}(\eta^0)$ and $\text{Im}(\eta^0)$ is then a good candidate [23, 24, 25, 26] for dark matter (DM). Neutrino mass may then be called scotogenic, i.e. being caused by darkness [27].

Σ^0 AS DARK MATTER

In Ref. [21], the lightest N may also be a DM candidate [28, 29], but then its only interaction is with $(v_\alpha \eta^0 - l_\alpha \eta^+)$ and these couplings have to be rather large to obtain the requisite DM relic abundance. In that case, flavor-changing radiative decays such as $\mu \rightarrow e\gamma$ are generically too big and require delicate fine tuning among the masses and couplings of N to be consistent with data.

If Σ^0 is selected as dark matter, then it can annihilate with itself and coannihilate with the slightly heavier Σ^\pm through electroweak gauge interactions to account for the correct relic abundance. Its Yukawa couplings may then be appropriately small, not to upset the constraints from $\mu \rightarrow e\gamma$, etc. Using the method developed in Ref. [30] to take coannihilation into account, and the various cross sections times the absolute value of the relative velocity of the DM particles, namely

$$\sigma(\Sigma^0 \Sigma^0) |v| \simeq \frac{2\pi\alpha_L^2}{m_\Sigma^2}, \quad \sigma(\Sigma^\pm \Sigma^\pm) |v| \simeq \frac{\pi\alpha_L^2}{m_\Sigma^2}, \quad (8)$$

$$\sigma(\Sigma^+\Sigma^-)|v| \simeq \frac{37\pi\alpha_L^2}{m_\Sigma^2}, \quad \sigma(\Sigma^0\Sigma^\pm)|v| \simeq \frac{29\pi\alpha_L^2}{m_\Sigma^2}, \quad (9)$$

m_Σ is estimated [7] to be in the range 2.28 to 2.42 TeV to reproduce the observed data $\Omega h^2 = 0.11 \pm 0.006$ [31] for its relic abundance. Note that the presence of Σ^\pm is important for having a large enough effective annihilation cross section for this to work and that the only free parameter here is m_Σ . The validity of Σ^0 as dark matter depends only on Z_2 and not on whether it is the source of radiative neutrino mass.

Σ AS LEPTON AND N AS BARYON

Assuming neutrino masses come from Σ , an intriguing possibility exists that the heavy fermion singlet N may in fact be a baryon [32, 33, 34, 35, 36]. The crucial ingredient for this unconventional identification is the existence of a scalar diquark $\tilde{h} \sim (3, 1, -1/3)$ with baryon number $B = -2/3$ so that the Yukawa couplings $ud\tilde{h}$, $u^c d^c \tilde{h}^*$, and $d^c N h$ are allowed, thereby making N a baryon ($B = 1$). Since N is a gauge singlet, it is also allowed a large Majorana mass. Hence additive B breaks to multiplicative $(-)^{3B}$ and the decays of the lightest N to udd and $\bar{u}\bar{d}\bar{d}$ through \tilde{h} would produce a baryon asymmetry in the early Universe. Below the mass scale of m_N , baryon number is again additively conserved, allowing this pure B asymmetry to be converted into a conserved $B - L$ asymmetry through the electroweak sphalerons, in analogy to the well-known scenario of leptogenesis [37].

CONCLUSION

Using the fermion triplet $(\Sigma^+, \Sigma^0, \Sigma^0)$ as the seesaw anchor for neutrino masses (version 3), many new and interesting possibilities of physics beyond the SM exist. It may be the missing link for gauge-coupling unification in the SM without going to the MSSM. As a result, the phenomenological landscape at the TeV scale may change significantly and be verifiable at the LHC, where Σ itself is much easier to detect than its singlet counterpart N . There may also be an associated neutral gauge boson, corresponding to an anomaly-free $U(1)_X$, whose decays into quarks and leptons are predicted as a function of a single parameter $r = n_4/n_1$. Furthermore, Σ may be the source of scotogenic radiative neutrino masses and be a dark-matter candidate itself, with a mass around 2.35 TeV. Other recent discussions of fermion triplets are found in Refs. [38, 39, 40, 41, 42].

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